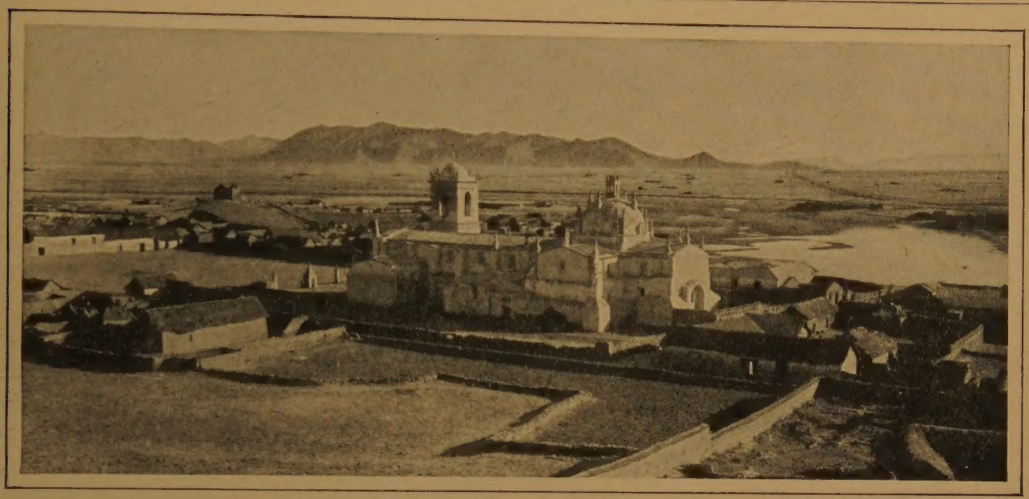
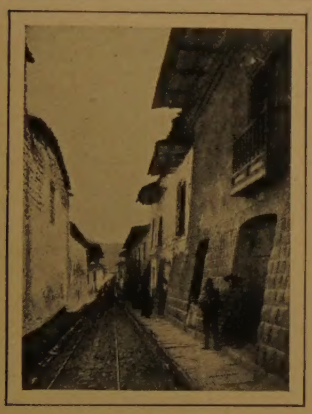


JULIACA—a town 14,000 feet above the sea

Photograph by E. M. Newman



STREET IN CUZCO

PERU

By E. M. NEWMAN
Traveler and Lecturer

MENTOR GRAVURES—CATHEDRAL, LIMA · THE OROYA RAILWAY · CATHEDRAL, AREQUIPA · PUBLIC SQUARE IN CUZCO · PALACE OF THE INCA ROCCA, CUZCO · UNIVERSITY OF CUZCO

NOT far from Panama, on the Pacific Coast, is the range of mountains that Balboa climbed in September, 1513, and whence he made his discovery of the Pacific Ocean; somewhere along the shore he strode into the waves, and, with sword drawn, took possession of the sea on behalf of the King of Spain.

Over the smooth ocean plains, which the Spaniards, accustomed to the stormy Atlantic, called the "peaceful sea," Balboa looked eagerly out, as he planned an expedition to Peru. In this expedition he was accompanied by Francisco Pizarro (English, pih-zah'ro; Spanish, pee-thahr'ro), who later (1531) conquered and governed Peru, an empire vaster than that in the Old World which was controlled by his sovereign, Charles V.

The Spanish historians tell us that, in the days of the Incas, the population of Peru was fully ten millions. Today there are less than five million inhabitants. Perhaps the fabulous wealth attributed to the Incas was exaggerated, but the romantic story of the "conquistadores"

Entered as second-class matter March 10, 1913, at the postoffice at New York, N. Y., under the act of March 3, 1879. Copyright, 1917, by The Mentor Association, Inc.

(conquerors) will forever live as one of the most interesting chapters in history.

The gateway to Peru is the port of Callao (kahl-lah'o or kahl-yah'o), which is but six miles distant from Lima, the capital. Rising from the sea several miles distant from the harbor of Callao are several islands which are said to have appeared suddenly after an earthquake. Following a night of terror, when the people went to the sea front they were astounded to see two large islands where the day previous huge waves were rolling in toward the land.

Photograph by E. M. Newman
CATHEDRAL AT LIMA
Where Pizarro is buried

Lima, the Capital

An electric street car takes one from Callao to Lima (lee'mah), the "City of Kings," in twenty minutes' time. History speaks eloquently as one makes his way into the broad Plaza, which is today the center of life in the Peruvian capital. A marble slab in the pavement marks the spot where Pizarro fell, a victim to his zeal and ambition. The cathedral facing the central square is said to be the oldest in the two Americas. Time has dealt leniently with this ancient structure, as it is still in a good state of preservation. The interior is severely plain, massive in appearance, and built to endure for all time. In one of the chapels rest the mortal remains of Pizarro.

Photograph by E. M. Newman
CONVENT OF SAN FRANCISCO, LIMA

The city retains much of its Old World appearance, and it has been frequently said that in Lima a burglar needs nothing more than a bowl of water and a sponge to soften the plaster. The city preserves in wood and stone the spirit of old Spain transplanted into the New World. Carved balconies overhang the streets, but electric cars now whirl past old monasteries where life has scarcely changed in three centuries.

There are several old convents, none more interesting than that connected with the church of San Francisco. In the cloister of this convent one looks upon the choicest bit of ancient architecture in South America. In its library are many old volumes and valuable manuscripts, which are prized possessions of the church.

No building in Lima is of more interest than the home of the Peruvian Senate, for within that structure is the "Hall of the Inquisition," a reminder of some of the most terrifying experiences of the Middle Ages. Immediately in front of the building rises the memorial to Bolivar, the Venezuelan, revered by the Peruvians as the great liberator. Since his time there have been many revolutions, but such events disturb but little the even tenor of Peruvian life.

Photograph by E. M. Newman
HALL OF THE INQUISITION, LIMA

There is a modern section in Lima, where one may see handsome structures, fine residences, with roof gardens and every evidence of wealth and progressiveness. It must be borne in mind that it hardly ever rains—that, aside from mists, the rainfall is insignificant.*

Although the city is practically rainless, a sufficient supply of water flows down from the mountains to permit the residents to enjoy the verdure and tropical beauty of a city park. The climate is never very warm, because the Peruvian coast is cooled by the Humboldt Current, which flows north from the Antarctic.

Photograph by E. M. Newman
THE BONES OF PIZARRO
In the Cathedral of Lima

Highest Railroad in the World

One of the most wonderful railway journeys in the world is that over the Central Railroad of Peru, from Lima to Oroya. On this railroad one reaches the highest point in the world traversed by a railway train. From Lima the railroad first follows the River Rimac, twisting and turning

* The average yearly rainfall of Lima is about one-twenty-fifth that of New York City, and the majority of this moisture is supplied by a peculiar wet fog known as the *garúa*.

through a valley in the foothills of the Andes; the train makes its way through a canyon, and as it continues its ascent the gorge gradually narrows. Even at an altitude of 7,000 feet above the sea the air continues balmy, and here and there bananas may be seen growing.

Photograph by E. M. Newman

THE OROYA RAILROAD
Running through the Andes

The scenery, which is wild and grand, resembles somewhat the Rocky Mountains, but in Peru the distant peaks tower so high that they seem to penetrate the azure blue of the skies. In the journey to the summit of the Andes the train passes through forty-seven tunnels and traverses seventeen switchbacks. At times it follows ledges where it is separated from the brink by but a few inches of earth; from the car windows one looks down upon villages so far below the train as to appear like mere specks. At the various stations Chola Indians come to the train and offer for sale various kinds of fruit and refreshments.

Photograph by E. M. Newman

SWITCHBACKS ON THE OROYA RAILROAD

At Matucana, a mining town, situated about 9,000 feet above sea level, one is first introduced to the llamas (lyah'mas), strange animals that make their home in the higher altitudes of the Andean range. Llamas have many of the characteristics of a camel, can subsist on little food, and manage to get along without water for a period of several days. This little animal is the Andean beast of burden, and while it will willingly carry a load of 100 pounds, if you place upon its back an additional pound it will lie down and refuse to move. It makes one think that llamas must have a labor union. At heights where we

begin to pant after the slightest exertion, the animal moves about with as much ease as if it were on the sea level. One of the strangest sights in the mountains is the numerous curious shrines. Most of the Indians were converted by the Spaniards to Catholicism, and today are devout members of the church. One frequently sees them kneeling in silent devotion before some wayside cross, and on Sundays they walk many miles to attend services in some church clinging to the slopes of the higher Andes.

Photograph by K. M. Newman
ON THE CREST OF THE ANDES
The Oroya Railroad at an altitude of nearly 16,000 feet

American Mining Enterprise

Fourteen thousand five hundred feet above the sea is Casapalca—one of the great copper-mining camps owned by Messrs. Backus and Johnson, Americans. Llama pack trains pass in endless streams down the mountainside, carrying copper and vanadium ores. Vanadium ore is owned and controlled by an American company, and is one of the essential products in the manufacture of steel.

Other than the engineers and the managers of the mines, the inhabitants are nearly all Indians; their houses are of the crudest construction, most of them built of mud. Animals often share the family bedroom with the Indians; the sleeping places of the Indians being placed upon a platform slightly raised above the floor. The nights are intensely cold, but the Indians, inured to the chill air, do not seem to suffer as do the whites.

There is a marked distinction between the full-blooded Indian and the half-breed; there is a social caste that is recognized and observed, as the full-blooded Indian must wear a felt or knitted hat, while the half breed dons a straw hat. The Quichua (kee-choo'ah or kee'chwah) Indian, who lives in this vicinity, is

Photograph by E. M. Newman
QUICHUA INDIAN CHILDREN
To be seen along the Oroya Railroad

usually quiet and inoffensive, bowing in humility before the white man. The highest point on the main line of the railway is attained when the train arrives at Galera tunnel, which is 15,665 feet above the level of the sea. Here one comes in sight of the crest of the Andes, with its snow-covered peaks, affording a majestic and inspiring view. One takes personal pride in the fact that in making this climb the train is drawn by an American locomotive, and the journey was made possible by the genius of an American engineer.

Peaks which from below seem to penetrate the sky now appear to be ridiculously low. There is far less snow than one anticipates, as the snow line begins only after an ascent of three miles; above this height it lies like a mantle, covering the summits at all periods during the year. Breathing at this altitude is exceedingly difficult; one's head feels so light and one's feet so heavy that walking is accomplished only with the greatest exertion. The human voice sounds as if it were spoken through tissue paper.

LANDING AT MOLLENDO
Lowering passengers from the ship to small boats

Situated at almost the highest point in the mountains is Cerro de Pasco (ther'-ro day pahs'-ko), the cradle of the greatest Peruvian copper mine. Its principal stockholders are Mrs. Phœbe Hearst, Mr. Haggin and other well-known Americans. The superintendent and many employees are also Americans, but in the mines only Indian labor is employed. It is not an inviting place in which to live.

The terminus of the Central Railroad is Oroya, which is reached after descending the eastern slope of the Andes range to an altitude of 12,000 feet. Oroya has no special attraction, but through it flows a stream of water known as the Ucayali (oo-ki*-ah'lee), which is one of the sources of the Amazon River. The mother

SAND DUNES NEAR AREQUIPA

*i long, as in *kite*.

Photograph by E. M. Newman

HARVARD OBSERVATORY, AREQUIPA
The volcano El Misti is seen in the background

tongue of the Indians living here is Quichua, but the children are being taught Spanish, which is the language of the country. The school houses are most primitive, and the instruction is of a very elementary kind. Indians who can read and write are permitted to vote, and it is a picturesque sight on election day in Oroya to see them casting ballots. They have the open instead of the secret ballot, and one therefore knows how every other man votes.

An American company recently paid ten millions of dollars for a concession from the Peruvian government that will enable it to irrigate nearly all of the lands on the west coast of Peru, thus reclaiming millions of acres formerly considered arid and useless.

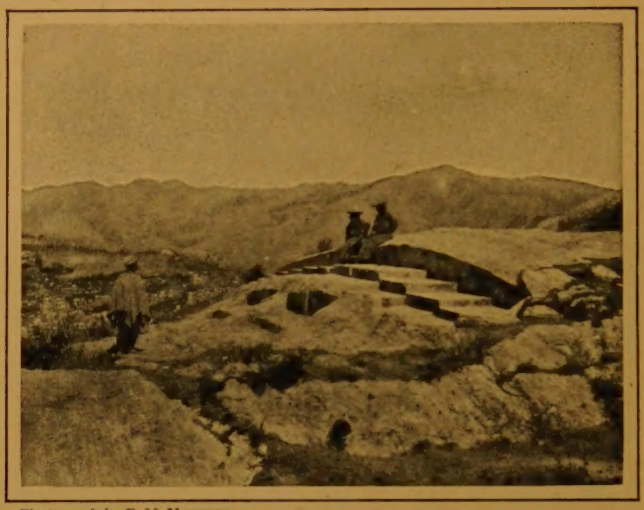
Experiments have proved that cotton can be successfully grown, that the soil is rich and fertile, and needs only irrigation for the production of bountiful crops; the land can be worked every day in the year, as it practically never rains, is never cold, and sufficient water may be obtained by bringing it down from the mountain tops.

Second in importance to the port of Callao is Mollendo (mol-yen'do), the terminus of the Southern Railroad of Peru. There are few landing places in the world as dangerous as this southern harbor. Huge swells dash against the rock-bound coast, throwing the water in spray to a height of sixty or seventy feet.

Photograph by E. M. Newman

A LITTLE CHOLA INDIAN

Landing directly at a wharf is impossible; one must go ashore in small boats that bob helplessly up and down on the crest of the swells. Passengers are raised to terra firma in a chair attached to a huge crane, five and six people being hauled up at a time.



Photograph by E. M. Newman

SEATS OF THE MIGHTY
Inca rock remains at Cuzco

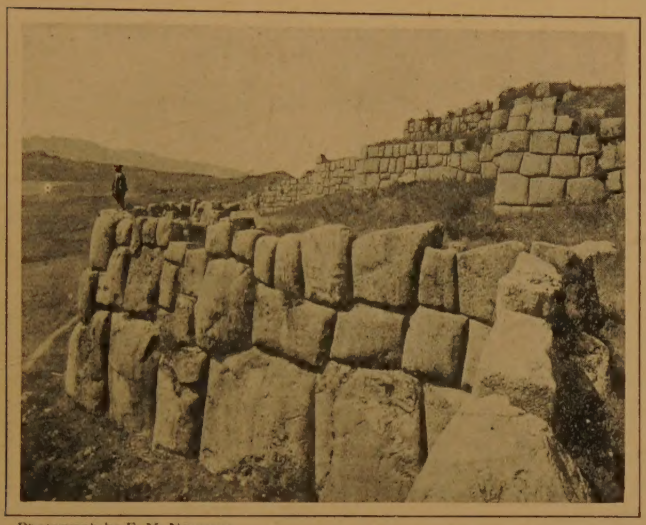
Arequipa

The Southern Railroad rises immediately after leaving Mollendo, and after a ride of about eight hours one arrives at Arequipa (ah-ray-kee'pah), which is situated nearly 8,000 feet above the level of the sea. It is a city built more solidly than Lima, with house-walls that average in thickness from five to six feet. Lying more out of the stream of modernizing conditions, it has retained an air of antiquity and dignity, superior even to that of the capital.

The flat roofs, on which the people sit in the evening, the deep and pungent odor of the dust, the absence of wheeled vehicles, the scantily dressed Indians, give the city an Eastern appearance, but no Eastern city has around it a mountain landscape such as this. The clearness of the air has led to its being selected as the site of an astronomical observatory,

Photograph by E. M. Newman

LLAMAS—INTERESTING AND AMUSING, AND VERY USEFUL AND FAITHFUL CREATURES



Photograph by E. M. Newman

A PREHISTORIC STRONGHOLD

Ruins of ancient Inca forts, Cuzco

which is maintained by Harvard University for mapping out the stars in the Southern hemisphere. Earthquakes are frequent; so often do they occur that the people have become accustomed to seek safety by rushing into the open air the moment a shock is felt.

Fourteen thousand feet above the sea is Juliaca (hoo-lee-ah'kah), an Indian town, which consists of a church surrounded by mud huts. In the early mornings it is intensely cold, and little or nothing grows in this vicinity. Here and there we may obtain a glimpse of a vicuña, which is somewhat like the llama in appearance but is much smaller in size. It is useless as a beast of burden, because it is untamable; it is found only at an altitude of from 11,000 to 15,000 feet, and produces the finest of all South American wools; of a delicate light-brown color, silky and soft as the fur of the chinchilla.

A branch of the Southern Railroad runs from Juliaca to Cuzco (kooz'ko), the ancient capital of the Incas. Were I to choose one city

Photograph by E. M. Newman

PUBLIC SQUARE, CUZCO

Where the Inca Tupac Amarú, leader of a rebellion, was beheaded. The name "Inca" properly belongs to the ruling family or clan in the ancient Peruvian monarchy. The expression "The Inca" means the reigning monarch. The name "Incas," however, is applied not only to the rulers, but also to their subjects

above all others in South America as a place to visit, I think my choice would be Cuzco. Street cars in this out-of-the-way place run only when trains arrive; in other words, twice a week.

There are no carriages in the city, as the streets are impossible, paved with cobble stones, indented by deep ruts, and in the center of each thoroughfare is running water. Even at the entrance gate we realize that Cuzco belongs to the class of cities that retains traces of ancient glory, such as Moscow, Bagdad or Delhi.

Photograph by E. M. Newman
STREET IN CUZCO

Cuzco, Capital of the Incas

It was at one time the capital of an empire vaster than was ruled from any of those seats of power. One cannot stand in its plaza without recalling the scene of 1571, when the Inca leader, Tupac Amarú, was executed in the presence of a multitude of Indians that filled the square.

Facing this same square is the old Jesuit Church; its cloister now used for the University of Cuzco. This University is of unusual interest to Americans, as it is affiliated with the University of Pennsylvania, one of whose former professors is now its head—Dr. Giesecke, who came from Philadelphia.

The cathedral of the city is another example of the ornate church buildings of the country, most of which impress one as being over decorated; but in this cathedral there is a somber elegance and a wealth of fine carving.

Beneath ancient colonnades we look into quaint shops where the gaily colored cloth so dear to the Indian's heart is displayed for sale. Architecturally, everything seems odd—the pillars, the timber roof of the colonnade, the sidewalk—all are strange and fascinating to the visitor.

The Cuzco Indians wear a pan-cake shaped hat which is reversible. It is made of straw on one side and cloth on the other. Men's hats are slightly larger than the women's, but otherwise fashion decrees that both wear the same style hat; styles may come and fashions may change, but the pan-cake hat goes on forever. On some of the streets are two-story buildings with red-tiled roofs and overhanging balconies supported by rows of columns and arches. In these arcades numerous small tradesmen display their wares. In Cuzco plumbing is conspicuous by its absence, and sewers are open conduits; but it has its fascination as the ancient Inca capital.

Inca Remains

Little wonder that the Incas were sun worshipers! If I lived in the Andean heights, I too would worship the sun. The early mornings and the nights are very cold, but the first rays of the sun send a life-giving

warmth into the atmosphere. Where before sunrise we shiver in the cold, one hour after the sun is up we are basking in its warmth. I was a sun worshiper while I was in Cuzco.

In many of the streets there are long walls of beautifully cut stone, laid without cement and fitted together as only the Incas could fit them. The Incas must have had a great love for stone-carving, and that they exhibited infinite patience the perfectly fitted stones mutely testify. In the Inca Rocca's palace one stone has twelve perfectly cut angles.

In the house at one time occupied by Almagro (ahl-mah'gro), Pizarro's lieutenant, is a beautiful patio or court-yard, which the vanishing centuries have not greatly marred; today it is an inn, a stopping place for wayfarers and Indians. There are a number of these delightful patios, reminding us of the days of the Spanish rule.

Photograph by E. M. Newman
WATER CARRIER OF CUZCO

Where formerly stood the Temple of the Sun, now stands a church which has been built, as have most of the buildings in Cuzco, on the ruins of Inca palaces. We are told that within the walls of the Temple of the Sun there were chapels sacred to the moon, the stars, the thunder and the lightning; that its roof was of pure gold, and that it was a storehouse of great wealth. Only in the Temple of the Sun do we find a circular wall; all others are flat.

To defend themselves from attack the Incas built a huge fortress on a hill overlooking the city. It was the greatest of the edifices that the Incas raised to demonstrate their majesty and power, and it was practically impregnable. From the ruined fortification the view is commanding.

Standing, as did the Incas, on the summit of the hill, one may now look down on Cuzco and, in imagination, reconstruct the ancient city, the prehistoric buildings erected ages ago by the constructive genius of the Incas. One can fancy he sees again those temples and palaces, the imposing monuments of a lost but not forgotten civilization. The romance of Peru is nowhere so impressed on the mind as here.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

THE SOUTH AMERICAN TOUR *By Annie S. Peck*

SOUTH AMERICA *By James Bryce*

OLD AND NEW PERU *By M. R. Wright*

THE INCAS OF PERU *By Sir Clements Markham*

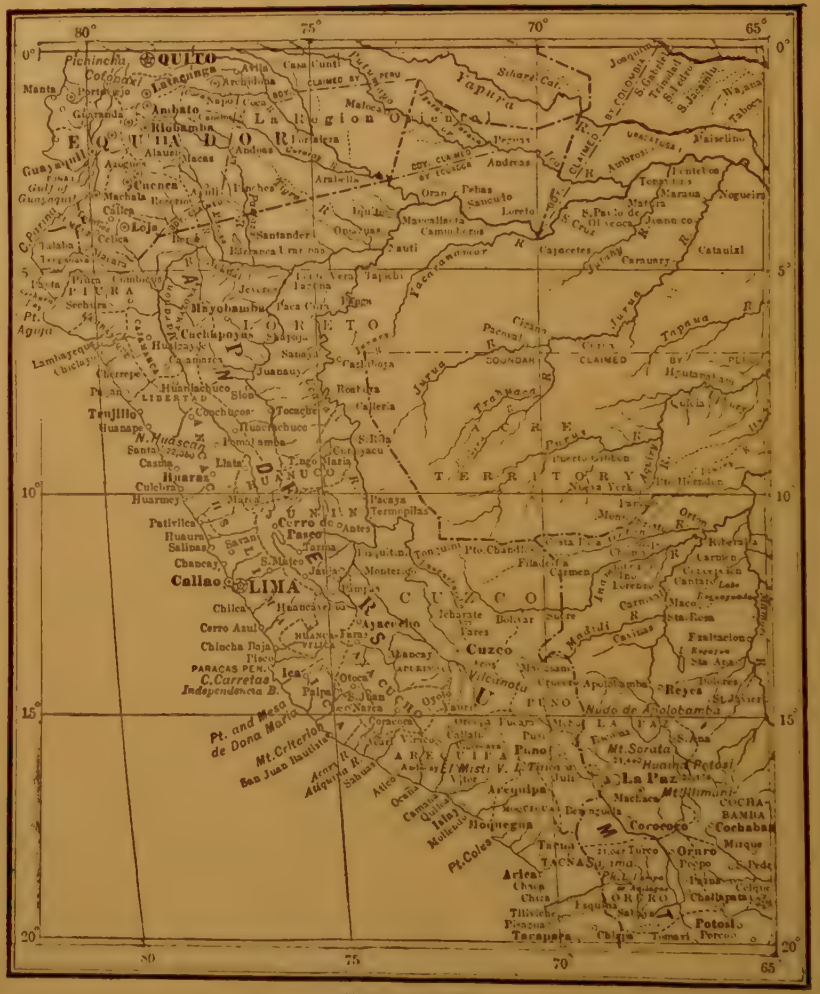
THE CONQUEST OF PERU *By W. H. Prescott*

THE SOUTH AMERICANS *By W. H. Koebel*

PERU OF THE TWENTIETH CENTURY *By F. F. Martin*

PERU, ITS STORY, PEOPLE AND RELIGION *By Geraldine Guinness*

***Information concerning the above books may be had on application to the Editor of The Mentor.



MAP OF PERU

How came it to be called Peru? The name was not known to the Incas. It was given to the land by the Spaniards, and it originated, so it is said, from a misunderstanding. According to one old Spanish authority, "Pelu" was the Indian name for "river," and the Spaniards, hearing this name from the lips of natives, took it to be the name of the country. Another Spanish authority, however, denies that there was such an Indian name as "Pelu," meaning "river." According to his way of thinking, "Peru" was a corruption of the old name "Ophir," whence Solomon drew such stores of wealth, and he claims that the Spaniards, considering the land as rich in treasure, applied the name, and in the course of using it changed it from "Ophir" to "Phira," then "Piru" and finally "Peru"—a fantastic and far-fetched explanation.

★ ★ ★

There is another and more recent theory. In the early part of the sixteenth century a native chief named "Biru" held command over a country in the northwest corner of South America, close to the Isthmus of Panama. The Spaniards called this region the "Province of Biru." Perhaps "Peru" came from the name of this Indian chief. It is not unlikely that the "river" theory and the last belong together, for Biru was said to be the name of a small river on the west coast of Colombia, where Pizarro landed. We may form our own conclusion.

★ ★ ★

So much—or we might better say, so little—do we know of the origin of the name. The Incas had a name in which they summed up the great collection of tribes and nations gathered in the land. "Tavantinsuyu," or "Four Quarters of the World," they called their kingdom—a name as hard to pronounce as it is to understand. Perhaps it is explained by the fact that the kingdom was actually divided into four parts. They were strange people, these Incas, and there is a great deal about them that we do not know. What has been given to us by Prescott and early historians, and what we learn now from the interesting investigations and explorations made by Professor Lloyd Bingham of Yale and other modern students is most interesting and whets curiosity. We shall learn more of the Incas later, for we are going to devote a whole number of The Mentor to a consideration of this old, extinct kingdom and its wonderful people.

W. D. Lloyd

ME PAINTING BY CHAPPEL

WASHINGTON TAKING COMMAND OF THE ARMY

THE STORY OF THE AMERICAN ARMY
The Beginning of the Army

ONE

THE battle of Bunker Hill, although technically a victory for the British, left them blockaded in Boston and Charlestown. The Americans held all the surrounding country, and they proceeded to starve the English into surrender or evacuation. In the meantime, news of the outbreak of the Rebellion had spread quickly through all the Colonies and had stirred them to the depths. War fire blazed throughout the land. Men dropped plow and axe and flew to arms. The troops collected in this way were provincials, militia, minute men and volunteers; they were excellent individual fighters, but they could hardly be called an army.

There was jealousy and friction between the officers. The troops of Rhode Island did not understand why they should serve under a general from Massachusetts. Other troubles arose. For this reason the Continental Congress, representing all the Colonies, was asked to name a commander-in-chief. A messenger was sent to Philadelphia, where Congress was then sitting.

With that Congress the story of the American army properly begins. The various units of fighting men were now to serve under one national authority and one national flag.

It was on June 14, 1775, that the Continental Congress officially took over the troops of the Colonies. At the same time they chose George Washington of Virginia for commander-in-chief.

Washington had even at that time considerable reputation as a military man. It was he that had rescued the remnant of Braddock's army from the trap set by the French and Indians at Fort Duquesne, now Pittsburgh. The selection of him as commander, however, was due in great part to a special and distinct reason. The northern Colonies had taken the first steps against the authority of Great Britain. Therefore, it seemed to Congress that a man from the most important of the Southern colonies, Virginia, should be selected as commander-in-chief, to allay any possible jealousy.

Washington accepted the command with some hesitation. "I am prepared," he wrote to a friend, "to bid farewell to what little reputation I may now possess." He spoke prophetically, for jealousies and intrigues crowded round him, and it was only because of his supreme genius that he weathered the storm.

Washington received his commission and started for Cambridge on horseback to take command of the army. He had gone but twenty miles from Philadelphia when a man on horseback galloped up with news of the battle of Bunker Hill.

"Did the militia fight?" asked Washington.

He was informed how well they had fought.

"Then the liberties of the country are safe," he replied briefly.

The men over whom George Washington was placed in command were courageous patriots and were glad to suffer and die for their country. But they were not well-drilled soldiers, and they saw no reason for drilling. In addition to this, they did not comprehend the necessity of a large army. They thought that they might as well return to their farms when they saw that the British seemed content to stay in Boston.

It was with such difficulties and many others that Washington had to contend. He had practically to build an army out of these unorganized farmers. Not only that, but he had to keep making a new army all the time, for when the terms of enlistment of the militia expired, most of them left the service and returned to their homes. To add to his troubles, he had few cannon and very little powder. The task would have seemed impossible to an ordinary man—but George Washington was not ordinary.

He arrived at Cambridge on July 3, 1775, and assumed command of the army under a spreading elm on Cambridge green that thereafter became known as the Washington Elm. There were in the service about 17,000 officers and men. Of the thirty-five regiments, twenty-six were from Massachusetts alone.

Shortly after this the Revolution began in earnest.

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VALLEY FORGE—
BARON STEUBEN
DRILLING THE TROOPS,
BY EDWIN A. ABBEY

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THE name of Valley Forge has passed into history as a synonym for bitter privation and cruel suffering. It marked the darkest hour of the Revolution for the Americans. If ever the cause of Liberty seemed hopeless, it was during the terrible winter of 1777-1778.

After the battles of Brandywine and Germantown, the British Army entered Philadelphia and the Continental Congress was forced to flee to York, Pennsylvania. From there, on December 19th, General George Washington took his army, numbering about ten thousand, to Valley Forge, for encampment through the winter. He chose this spot partly because the hilly ground was favorable for defense, and partly because the American Army was thus placed between the British forces and Congress.

The camp of the Americans was protected on the west by precipitous hillsides and Valley Creek; at the north the Schuylkill River afforded a barrier, while on the east a series of entrenchments and rifle pits were built.

Throughout the entire winter Washington's army remained there—and all the time in a bad way. The men were very poorly clad. In many cases they had no shoes, and were forced to wrap their feet in rags to protect them. Food was scarce. The Commissary Department was in chaos. Washington feared that his army would either starve or disperse to seek food. Soldiers were continually deserting. Even the hardiest fighters grow discouraged when the stomach is empty. On the whole, however, although Washington's forces dwindled, the men behaved admirably. That the Commander-in-chief was able to hold the army together was enough to show the loyalty of his soldiers and the genius of the General. One European officer told of a sentry, his feet tied up in rags, his coat tattered and open to the icy winds, his red and frost nipped hands ungloved, pacing his beat and singing a song in praise of the Commander-in-chief.

Toward the end of December, Washington reported 2,898 men as unfit for duty because of sickness or lack of clothing. At one time an officer, seeing a kettle boiling merrily, asked one of the soldiers in the group what they were cooking. "A stone, Colonel," was the reply. "They say that there is great strength in that, if you can get it out."

For clothing the soldiers were no better off. In some cases they had to sit up all night before the fires, because they had no blankets to sleep in. Washington was indignant at the state of affairs. "Perhaps by midsummer," he wrote, "the soldiers may receive thick stockings, shoes and blankets. . . . By an eternal round of the most stupid management the public treasure is expended to no kind of purpose, while the men have been left to perish by inches with cold and nakedness."

It has always been one of the puzzles of history why the British General Howe, with twenty thousand well-fed men, did not attack this poor phantom of an army. One reason that has been advanced is that he thought the Americans too well entrenched. It is more probable, however, that Howe, who was a conservative and kindly man, thought that the winter would do for the Americans and that moderate measures would persuade them to listen favorably to the proposal for peace which he soon put forth. There was no thought of compromise among the Revolutionists, however.

Washington used the winter to drill his soldiers. In this, Lafayette, the courageous young Frenchman, was of great assistance. In addition, Baron Steuben reached the camp on February 27, 1778, and lent his aid. Baron Steuben had been an aide to Frederick the Great. In 1777 his friend, the Count St. Germain, then the French Minister of War, persuaded him to go to the assistance of the American colonists. Steuben arrived in New Hampshire in December and offered his services to Congress. This offer was gratefully received, and in the following March Steuben began the reorganization of the army. By May he had established a thorough system of discipline and economy, the results of which were shown in the next campaign, particularly at the battle of Monmouth.

On May 1, 1778, news reached the camp that a treaty of alliance had been concluded with France. The soldiers were wild with enthusiasm, for they all knew that this meant substantial help in the way of men, money, ships and munitions. A day of thanksgiving was set and a banquet was prepared for 1,500 officers, who marched to the table thirteen abreast with arms locked, in token of the union of the thirteen States. The Americans even set free a spy, who had been captured, on the condition that he return to Philadelphia and tell the English of the celebration and the reason therefor.

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THREE

CORNWALLIS surrendered to Washington at Yorktown on October 19, 1781. This was really the end of the Revolution, for there was no more important fighting, although peace was not concluded until September, 1783. Between Yorktown and the Treaty of Peace, however, there were many pitfalls for the Colonies. To George Washington, in great part, was due the fact that they held together and did not lose by internal dissension all that they had gained.

After the surrender of Cornwallis, Washington returned with his army to the Hudson, and made his headquarters at Newburgh, New York. The Continental Congress thought that the war was over, and even considered mustering the soldiers out, without payment for their services. Against this Washington protested vigorously. It was necessary that something be done immediately, for the army was growing restless and could have controlled the situation if it so desired.

Washington occupied a unique position. His influence with the people was enormous, and his soldiers almost worshiped him. A proposal was put to him to make himself dictator, with the Continental Army at his back. A conference of officers was called at Newburgh, and the leaders proposed to march the army westward, appropriate public lands as part compensation for arrears of pay, and leave Congress to negotiate for peace without an army.

It would have been the easiest thing in the world for Washington to make himself ruler at the moment. He would have had a good excuse, too, for in this emergency a strong man was needed if the country was to be saved—one who could bring order out of chaos.

But Washington met all propositions to make him dictator with stern disapproval. He put a summary stop to the whole proceedings. Although sympathizing with the badly treated army, he suppressed all threats of a military uprising. Colonel Lewis Nicols, on behalf of the officers, wrote him a letter detailing the weaknesses of a republican form of government, and asserting that "the title of king" would not be objectionable to many and would be of advantage to the country. Washington's reply was sharp and indignant. He stated plainly his abhorrence of the proposal, and he added that he was at a loss to conceive what part of his conduct could have encouraged their address, and he charged them, "if you have any regard for yourself or posterity, or any respect for me, to banish these thoughts from your mind, and never communicate, as from yourself or anyone else, a sentiment of the like nature."

In addition, Washington called a meeting of his officers, and, rising, took out his glasses, saying, "You see, gentlemen, I have grown both blind and gray in your service." And then he appealed to them earnestly not to sully the glorious record of the army by mutiny and revolt. His influence turned the scale. The incipient uprising was quelled. Before long Congress acted, and the soldiers received half their pay, with grants of land to make up the rest.

Peace was finally concluded in September, 1783. In November, the last British soldier left New York, and Washington and his troops entered the city. There they found a British flag nailed to the staff, the halyards gone and the staff soaped. A sailor climbed the pole by nailing on cleats, pulled down the British flag and reeved new halyards. Then the Stars and Stripes was raised to a salutation of thirteen guns.

Washington's last act as Commander-in-Chief of the Continental Army was to take leave of his officers in the Long Room of Fraunces' Tavern, which is still standing in Broad Street, New York City. There, after his historic Farewell Address, he pressed the hand of each officer in farewell. He resigned his commission on December 23, 1783.

Washington would take no salary for his services during the Revolution, accepting only his expenses, which amounted to about $64,000. In addition to this money, however, he had spent a considerable amount from his private fortune, for which he received no return.

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FOUR

THE battle of Gettysburg, on July 1, 2 and 3, 1863—although it arose from a chance encounter—was the turning point of the Civil War. It was the most critical and the greatest individual battle of the war, and a battle in which the Confederate and Federal armies were displayed at their best. In the spring of 1863 the Civil War had been in progress for nearly two years. The Northern Army of the Potomac had gone through vicissitudes that had displayed weaknesses and had impaired its standing to a certain extent. On the other hand, the Confederate Army of Northern Virginia, under General Robert E. Lee, one of the most skilful leaders of all time, was a wonderful fighting force. The Federal forces had been unfortunate in their leadership. McClellan, a splendid organizer and drill master, was not a great fighting genius. His successors in command, one after the other, fell short of the demands. Finally, the command of the Army of the Potomac had been entrusted to General Hooker, known as "Fighting Joe."

General Lee realized that to win the war the South must not remain on the defensive. He determined, therefore, to carry the war into the enemy's country, and began an invasion of Pennsylvania.

At the beginning of May, 1863, the total Union forces actually effective in Virginia and Maryland numbered approximately 177,000. The aggregate effective strength of the Army of Northern Virginia was about 80,500.

General Lee realized that he had undertaken a very formidable task. He had behind him an impoverished country and a bankrupt government. Yet his forces were practically equal in numbers to the Federal forces, for the latter were dispersed in isolated bodies separated by long distances. Lee knew that it would be a difficult task to dislodge General Hooker from his position on the Rappahannock. The only way to move him would be a threat against Washington or an invasion of Pennsylvania. Once Lee got his army across the Potomac in a position to threaten Washington, Hooker would be forced to retreat to the defense of the Capital.

Finally, at the end of June, Hooker was relieved of his command and General George G. Meade was appointed in his place. By this time Lee's army was in Pennsylvania. That State was panic-stricken. The first company that marched to the defense of Harrisburg was made up of students of the Pennsylvania College—sixty boys, led by a theological student. In the mean time, the long columns of men in gray moved steadily forward.

While this invasion of Pennsylvania was seemingly unopposed, Lee was in fact facing a great danger, for all the time the Northern army was keeping pace with him. The Confederate general knew that he must not let the Federals get between him and Richmond.

An accident brought about the battle of Gettysburg. The Confederate General Pettigrew was sent forward with a brigade to Gettysburg to capture a large store of shoes that was being held there for the Federal troops. Pettigrew discovered, however, that there was a considerable number of Northern soldiers in Gettysburg. The Confederate General Hill thought that these troops were only the Pennsylvania militia. They composed, however, General Buford's cavalry division, and he sent quickly for reinforcements of Federal troops. Therefore, when General Hill and the Confederates came back to Gettysburg for the shoes, General Buford had forces enough to hold them in check. This was on July 1st, and suddenly the battle of Gettysburg was "on"—a battle that neither Lee nor Meade had sought. The rest of the forces on both sides became engaged—and then great war history was made.

An account of the actions of the battle of Gettysburg will be found in Mentor No. 32. This battle will also be considered in a number on the Civil War. It was one of the bloodiest fights of all time. The story of July 1, 2, and 3, 1863, is a record of heroic deeds and gallant actions. Possibly the most heroic figure was that of the Confederate General Pickett. The glorious charge of his men will live forever in the annals of deeds of desperate daring.

Pickett's charge was made up Cemetery Hill. The first Federal line was broken, but the others held firm. At last the Confederates were repulsed with terrible losses. Of 4,500 officers and men who took part in it, 3,393 were left on the field. The failure of this assault practically ended the battle.

It cannot be said that the Federal forces gained a decisive victory. General Meade held his men under arms for an entire day, and gave General Lee an opportunity to retreat leisurely and in good order. This battle destroyed the hope of Confederate invasion of the North. Gettysburg was the high-water mark of the Rebellion, and from then on Southern prospects of victory began to wane. One day later, on July 4, 1863, Vicksburg surrendered to General Grant.

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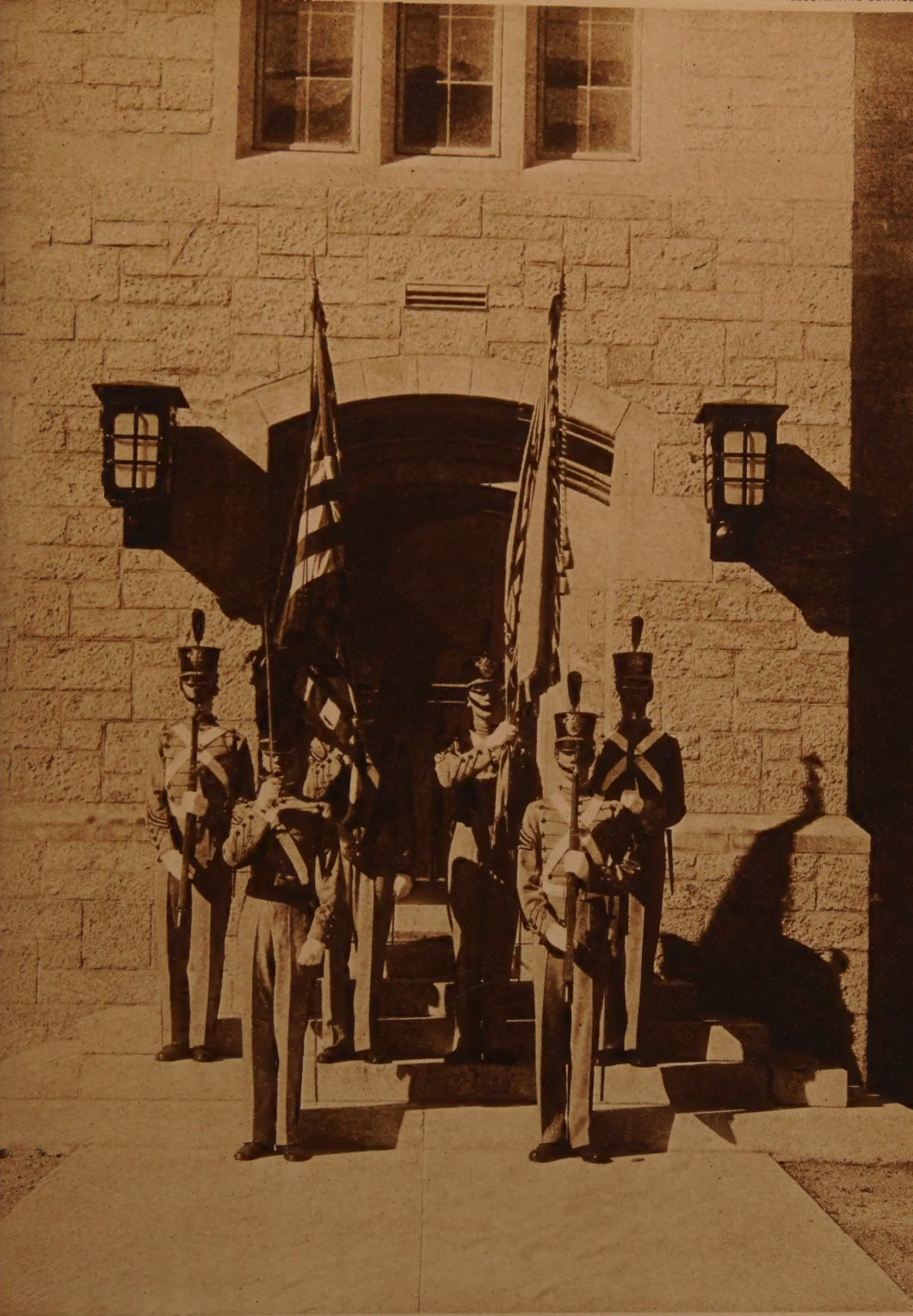

THE "COLORS" AT WEST POINT—THE FLAG ESCORTED FROM THE GUARD-HOUSE FOR DRESS PARADE

THE STORY OF THE AMERICAN ARMY

The United States Military Academy, West Point

FIVE

THE United States Military Academy at West Point is an essential part of the American Army; for it is there that men are trained to officer the army. A complete number of The Mentor will be devoted to West Point at a later date. It is, however, important to consider the Military Academy in connection with the story of the army.

George Washington recommended West Point as the site for a military school. Such an establishment had been suggested in May, 1776, and in October of that year the Continental Congress appointed a committee to draw plans for "a military academy of the army." A Corps of Invalids was established in June, 1777, was organized in Philadelphia in July, 1777, and was transferred to West Point in 1781; this corps was to serve as a military school for "young gentlemen previously to their being appointed to marching regiments." It was in 1783 that Washington, at his headquarters at Newburgh, New York, laid before his officers the matter of a military academy. A school for cadets of the corps of artillerists and engineers was established at West Point on the President's recommendation in 1794. The act of March 16, 1802, the organic act of West Point, authorized a corps of engineers, which included ten cadets. "The said corps, when organized, shall be stationed at West Point and shall constitute a military academy." The formal military academy under this act went into operation on July 4, 1802. For several years instruction was disorganized and desultory. In 1811-1812, instruction was practically abandoned, and in March, 1812, the Academy was without a single instructor.

The act of April, 1812, reorganized the Academy, and laid down the general principles and plan on which it has since been conducted. A maximum of two hundred and fifty cadets was then authorized. Up to the year 1843 cadets were appointed without regard to their place of residence. But from that time the custom that had grown up of providing for one cadet from each congressional district, each territory and the District of Columbia, was embodied in the law. Now, however, each senator, congressional district and territory, including Porto Rico, Alaska and Hawaii, is entitled to have two cadets at the Academy, and the District of Columbia four cadets. There are also eighty appointments at large, which are especially conferred by the President of the United States. The act of May 4, 1916, also authorizes the President to appoint cadets to the United States Military Academy from among enlisted men in the regular army and National Guard, the total number not to exceed one hundred and eighty at any time.

Appointments are usually made one year in advance of date of admission, by the Secretary of War, upon the nomination of the senator or representative. These nominations may either be made after competitive examination or given direct at the option of the representative. Candidates for admission must be between the ages of seventeen and twenty-two years, physically qualified, and be able to pass examinations in English literature, algebra, geography, history, and so on.

The course of instruction requires four years, and is largely mathematical and professional. Of course, military science is the chief thing considered.

The discipline of the Military Academy is very strict. Academic duties begin September 1st and continue until June 4th. From about the middle of June to the end of August, cadets live in camp, engaged only in military duties, and receive practical military instruction. Cadets are allowed but one leave of absence during the four year course, and this is granted at the expiration of the first two years. Each cadet receives, while in attendance at the Academy, $709.50 per year.

Upon graduating, cadets are commissioned as second lieutenants in the United States Army. The whole number graduated from 1802 to 1916, inclusive, has been 5,601. The present Superintendent of the Military Academy is Colonel John Biddle, Corps of Engineers, U. S. A. The military and academic staff consists of one hundred and thirty-six persons.

The picture on the opposite side presents one of the most impressive and stirring spectacles to be seen at West Point—the escort of the "Colors" from the guard house to the parade ground. It is a ceremony that no visitor can witness without a thrill.

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THE regular army of the United States has always been small, and, in time of war, reliance has been placed on volunteer forces. In addition to the regular army, in the past, each State has had its organized militia. In the year 1916 the law known as the National Defense Act, or Hay Law, was passed by Congress, bringing these various State militias under Federal control and increasing the size of the regular army. Under that law, the army of the United States consists of the regular army, the volunteer army, the Officers' Reserve Corps, the enlisted reserve corps, the National Guard, while in the service of the United States, and such other land forces as are authorized by law.

The regular army of the United States consists of sixty-four regiments of Infantry, twenty-five regiments of Cavalry, twenty-one regiments of Field Artillery, a Coast Artillery Corps, the brigade, division, army corps, and army headquarters, with their detachments and troops, a General Staff Corps, an Adjutant General's Department, an Inspector General's Department, a Judge Advocate General's Department, a Quartermaster Corps, a Medical Department, a Corps of Engineers, an Ordnance Department, a Signal Corps, the officers of the Bureau of Insular Affairs, the Militia Bureau, the detached officers, the detached non-commissioned officers, the chaplains, the Regular Army Reserve, the officers and enlisted men on the retired list, and other officers and enlisted men. The total strength of the Army under this act is limited to 175,000 men, except in case of war or emergency.

The troops of the regular army of the United States are organized into brigades and divisions. The typical brigade consists of a headquarters and three regiments.

The President of the United States is Commander-in-chief of the American army. The General Staff Corps has actual charge of military operations.

Each regiment of Infantry consists of one Colonel, one Lieutenant Colonel, three Majors, fifteen Captains, sixteen First Lieutenants, fifteen Second Lieutenants, one headquarters company, one machine-gun company, one supply company and twelve Infantry companies, organized into three battalions of four companies each.

The organization of a regiment of Cavalry is practically the same, with the exception that the units corresponding to companies and battalions of infantry are known as "troops" and "squadrons," respectively.

The Field Artillery consists of one hundred and twenty-six batteries, organized into twenty-one regiments. Each regiment of Field Artillery consists of one Colonel, one Lieutenant Colonel, one Captain, one headquarters company, one supply company, and such number of battalions as the President directs.

The Coast Artillery Corps consists of one Chief of Coast Artillery, with the rank of Brigadier-General, twenty-four Colonels, twenty-four Lieutenant Colonels, seventy-two Majors, three hundred and sixty Captains, the same number of First Lieutenants and Second Lieutenants, and other officers and men.

All enlistments in the regular army are for a term of seven years, the first three years in the active service and the last four years in the Regular Army Reserve.

For the purpose of securing a reserve of officers for service as temporary officers in the regular army, the Officers' Reserve Corps has been provided. This consists of such citizens as upon examination have been found physically, mentally and morally qualified to hold such positions. These reserve officers in time of war may be ordered by the President to temporary duty with the regular army. A Reserve Officers' Training Corps at schools and colleges has also been organized.

The militia of the United States consists of all able-bodied male citizens between the ages of eighteen and forty-five. The National Guard consists of the regularly enlisted militia. The period of service is three years in active service and three years in reserve. The National Guard may be drafted into the Federal service.

In May, 1917, in consequence of the outbreak of war with Germany, Congress passed a bill to raise by a form of conscription known as the "selective draft," a force supplementary to the regular army and the National Guard, consisting originally of 500,000 men, and of further contingents of 500,000 men each, as needed. These men will be selected from able-bodied male citizens between the ages of 21 and 30 inclusive, all of whom, except men with dependent families and certain other specified classes, will be liable to military service if drafted.

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